

Sudan University of Science and Technology

College of Graduate Studies

College of Languages – English Department

MA Program in Applied Linguistics

**Problems Encountered by Non-Native Speakers in
Understanding Connected Speech of English Native
Speakers**

**المشاكل التي تواجه الناطقين بغير اللغة الانجليزية في فهم الكلام المترابط
للناطقين بها**

*A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment for the requirements of MA degree in
linguistics*

Submitted by

Mustafa Badawi Zain Elabdeen

Supervised by

Dr. Yusuf AlTiraifi Ahmed

2015

الاستهلال

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

u t s r q p o M

L} | { z yxiv

صَلَّى اللَّهُ عَلَى النَّبِيِّ

(الروم: ٢٢)

Dedication

To the greatest woman who made me a real human by doing her best in all the stages of life.

My dear mother,,,,

To the great and generous man ... *My father,,,*

To the all members of my family.

To my friends and colleagues,,,,

To all

I dedicate this humble effort

The researcher,,,,

Acknowledgements

Thankfulness is due to Allah the cherisher and sustainer of the worlds for his great help and assistance in enabling me to finish this work.

The researcher is very indebted and grateful to Dr Yousuf Altriefi for his supervision on this research and his patience.

The kind and gracious man Dr Tajelsir Bashom for his valuable advice and instructions.

Mr. Sami Elshaikh for his continuous advice over the subjects and his long patience in organizing and typing the research.

For all who helped and supported me in accomplishing this work.

Abstract

This study aims to investigate the problems that face non-native speakers in understanding the native speakers in the process of communication by investigating the factors that form the connected speech and the effect of these factors in the changes that happen in connected speech.

Descriptive method was used to show the changes that happen in connected speech and questionnaire to collect data.

The results showed that, the non-native speakers of English language lack the proper knowledge about connected speech and neglect the matter. Moreover, they do not pay attention to the changes that happen during the course of speech.

The researcher recommends by giving necessary importance to the subject in educational institutions by presenting intensive programmes and using advanced language laboratory. The researcher suggests further studies and researches in order to get satisfactory knowledge and practice in the future.

المستخلص

تهدف هذه الدراسة لتقصي المشاكل التي تواجه متحدثي اللغة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية، في فهم متحدثي اللغة الانجليزية كلغة ام اثناء عملية التخاطب؛ بتقصي العوامل التي تشكل الكلام المترابط وأثر هذه العوامل في التغيرات التي تحدث في الكلام المترابط.

تم استخدام المنهج الوصفي في عرض التغيرات التي تحدث في الكلام المترابط والاستبيان لجمع المعلومات.

أوضحت النتائج أن متحدثي اللغة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية يفتقدون المعرفة اللازمة فيما يخص الكلام المترابط ويهملون هذا الموضوع بالاضافة الى انهم لا يلقون له بالاً للتغيرات التي تحدث اثناء سير الكلام.

يوصى الباحث بأن يعطى الموضوع ألاحمية اللازمة في المؤسسات التعليمية، بتقديم برامج مكثفة واستخدام المعامل اللغوية المتطورة، يقترح الباحث بأن يتم عمل دراسات وبحوث اضافية لكي نتوصل الى معرفه وممارسة مرضية في المستقبل.

List of Contents

Topic	Title Page
Initiation	i
Dedication	ii
Acknowledgments	iii
Abstract (English)	iv
Abstract (Arabic)	v
List of contents	vi
List of tables	ix
Chapter One Introduction	
1.0 Background	1
1.1 Statement of the Problem	1
1.2 The Objectives of the Study	2
1.3 The Questions of the Study	2
1.4 Hypothesis of the Study	2
1.5 Significance of the Study	2
1.6 Methodology of the Study	3
1.7 Limitations of the Study	3
Chapter Two Literature Review	
2-0 Introduction	4
2-1 Rhythm	4
2-2 Assimilation	8

2-3 Elision	12
2- 4 Linking	14
2.5 What is Connected Speech?	17
2.6 Assimilation	18
2.7 Elision	23
2.8 Linking and Intrusion	27
2.9 Transition (Juncture)	31
2.10 Reduction	31
2.11 Previous Studies	34
Chapter Three Methodology	
3-0 Introduction	35
3-1 The Subject	35
3-2 The tools	35
3-3 Validity and Reliability	35
3-4 Summary	36
Chapter Four Data Analysis, Results and Discussion	
4-1 Introduction	37
4-2 Results	37
4-3 Summary	43
Chapter Five Conclusions, Recommendations and Further Suggestions	
5-1 Introduction	44
5-2 Conclusions	44

5-3 Findings	44
5-4 Further Suggestions	45
5-5 Recommendations	45
References	46
Appendices	47

List of tables

Table	Pg.
Table (4.1) distribution of Q 1 according to the questionnaire	37
Table (4.2) distribution of Q 2 according to the questionnaire	38
Table (4.3) distribution of Q 3 according to the questionnaire	38
Table (4.4) distribution of Q 4 according to the questionnaire	39
Table (4.5) distribution of Q 5 according to the questionnaire	39
Table (4.6) distribution of Q 6 according to the questionnaire	40
Table (4.7) distribution of Q 7 according to the questionnaire	40
Table (4.8) distribution of Q 8 according to the questionnaire	41
Table (4.9) distribution of Q 9 according to the questionnaire	41
Table (4.10) distribution of Q 10 according to the questionnaire	42
Table (4.11) distribution of Q 11 according to the questionnaire	42
Table (4.12) distribution of Q 12 according to the questionnaire	43

Chapter One

Introduction

1-0 Background:

Every language in the world has specific characteristics in producing speech sounds therefore producing speech is most important propriety of any language which distinguishes a language from another.

English language has a special way in producing sounds according to the nature of this language as timed-stressed language. In English language sounds are different when they appear in isolation than to appear in accompanying of other words, when sounds are produced in continuous speech their characteristics will be totally different because of some processes that happen during the course of speech.

The phenomenon of continuous speech known as connected speech thus when native speakers of English language speak, they never make stops during their speech. A lot of non-native speakers of English language face a great deal of difficulties in listening to the native speakers because of the aspects of connected speech when the sounds are completely changed by the native speakers therefore the following study aims to investigate the aspects and nature of connected speech, the roots of the problem, what that causes the problem? What do non-native speakers lack to deal with this problem and what are the necessary solutions and procedures which should be done.

1-1 The statement of the problem:

The non-native speakers of English language encounter difficulties in what concerns their communication with native speakers. They lack a lot of details in communication which hinders their role in interacting very well with native speakers.

The study aims to investigate the factors which affect in the role of communication.

1-2 The objectives of the study:

The study aims at investigating the influence of connected speech in understanding spoken language by non-native speakers and the difficulties which they face because of change in the sounds, when the native speakers produce the sounds in a connected piece of language.

1-3 The questions of the Study:

- 1- What are the things that non-native speakers ignore about connected speech?
- 2- What do non-native speakers need to learn about connected speech?
- 3- What are the things non-native speakers need to learn about connected speech?

1-4 The Hypotheses of the Study:

- 1- A great number of English language non-native speakers have weak background about the aspects of connected speech.
- 2- The changes which happen during the speech refer to the effect of rhythm, elision and linking.
- 3- The non native speakers need to learn about the aspects of connected speech and other patterns of sounds.

1-5 The significance of the Study:

The significance of this study comes from the importance of spoken language which measures the competence of language users in understanding and using foreign language properly. Knowing and realizing the connected speech help the non-native speakers to deal with language in a perfect manner, besides improving the skills of listening and speaking.

1-6 The Methodology:

The researcher is going to use descriptive and qualitative methods to collect the data of the study and to show the changes that happen during the connected speech by investigating some constituents and their roles in connected speech.

1-7 The Limits of the Study:

The limits of this study is to investigate the connected speech in understanding of non-native speakers of English language by carrying out study among non-native speakers in Khartoum state. The samples of the study are holders of English language academic degrees and are active in the field of language.

Chapter Two

Literature Review:-

2-0 Introduction:

A great number of the non native speakers of English language find themselves in a difficult situation when they try to listen to the native speaker. They lose a lot of details, because they can't understand or recognize the components of language in the stream of the speech; the problem rises from this point, why they can't communicate with the native speakers? That we are going to investigate in this chapter by exploring some constituents that form the aspects of connected speech which concerns the spoken language.

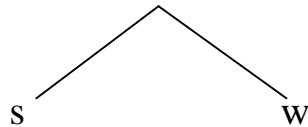
Many years ago scientists tried to develop machines that produced speech from a vocabulary of pre-recorded words', the machines are designed to join these words together to form sentences. For very limited messages, such as those of a "talking clock", this technique was usable, but for other it was practically unintelligible. In recent years, development in computer technology have led to big improvements in this way of producing speech, but the inadequacy of the original "mechanical speech" approach has many lessons to teach us about pronunciation teaching and learning. In looking at connected speech it is useful to bear in mind the difference between the way humans speak and what would be found in "mechanical speech". Peter Roach (2000:134)

2-1 Rhythm:

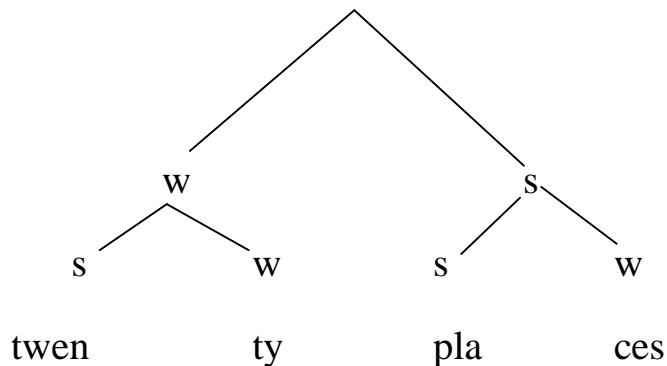
The motion of rhythm involves some noticeable event happening at a regular beat, of flashing light or of a piece of music. It has often been claimed that English speech is rhythmical, and rhythm is detectable in regular occurrence of stressed syllables; of course, it is

not. Suggested that the timing is as regular as a clock the regularity of occurrence is only relative.

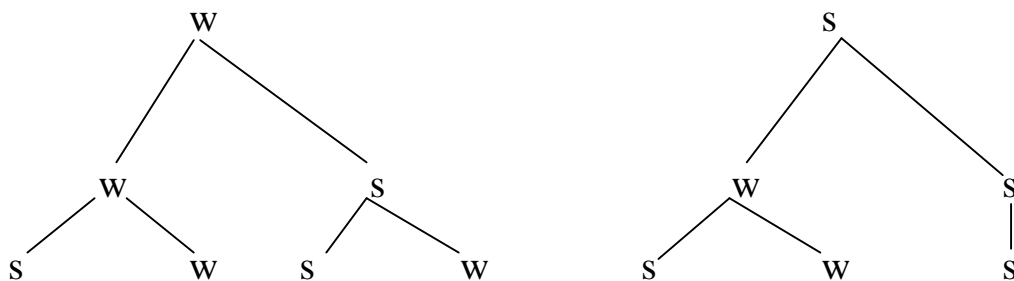
The word 'places' has the same for:



Now consider the phrase “twenty places, , where “places” normally carries stronger stress ‘twenty’, i.e. rhythmically stronger. We can make our “tree diagram” grow to look like.



If we then look at this phrase in the context of longer phrase ‘twenty places further back’, and build up the ‘further back. Part in similar way, we would end up with an even more elaborate structure: (Ibid:134)



By analyzing speech in this way we are able to show the relationships between strong and weak elements, and the different levels of stress that we find. The strength of any particular syllable can be measured by counting up the number of times an S syllable occurs above it; the level S in the sentence shown above can be diagrammed like this syllables that never received stress at any level:

	S	s	s
S	s	s	s

twe ty pla ces fur ther back

The above “metrical grid” may be correct for very slow speech, but we must now look at what happens to the rhythm in normal speech: many English speakers would feel that, although in “twenty places” the right – hand foot is the stronger, the word ‘twenty’ is stronger than ‘places’ in ‘twenty places further back’ when spoken in conversational style. It is widely claimed that English speech tends towards a regular alternation between stronger and weaker and tends to adjust stress level to bring this about. The effect is particularly noticeable in cases such as the following which all show the effect of what is called stress – shift.

Compact “adjective” *kəm'pækt* but compact disk */kDmpækt/ /disk/*

Thirteen *θɜ:ti:n* but thirteenth places *θɜti:nθ'plesɪs*

Westminster *we'mɪnstə* but Westminster Abby *westmɪnstə'ræbi*

In brief, it seems that stresses are altered according to context: we need to be able to explain how and why this happens, but this is a difficult question and one for which we have only partial answers. (Ibid:137)

An additional factor is that in speaking English we vary in how rhythmically we speak: sometimes we speak very rhythmically (this is typical of some styles of public speaking) while at other times we may speak arrhythmatically (that is, without rhythm) if we are hesitant or nervous.

Stress- timed rhythm is thus perhaps characteristic of one style of speaking, not of English speech as a whole; one always speaks with some degree of rhythmicity, but the degree varies between a minimum value (rhythmically) and maximum value (completely stress-timed rhythm). (Ibid:137)

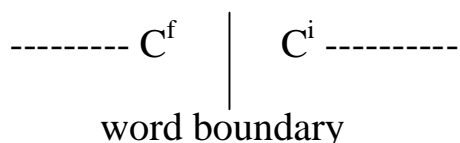
It follows from what was stated earlier that in a stress-timed language all the feet are supposed to be of roughly the same duration. Many foreign learners of English are made to practice speaking English with a regular rhythm, often with the teacher beating time or clapping hands on the stressed syllables. It must be pointed out, however, that the evidence for the existence of truly stress- timed rhythm is not strong. There are many laboratory techniques for measuring time in speech, and measurement of the time intervals between stressed syllables in connected English speech has not shown the expected regularity; moreover, using the same measuring techniques on different languages, it has not been possible to show a real difference between “stressed timed” and “syllable-timed” languages. Experiments have shown that we tend to hear speech as more rhythmical than it actually is, and one suspects that this is what the proponents of the stress-timed rhythm theory have been led to do in their auditory analysis of English rhythm. However, one ought to keep an open mind on the subject, remembering that the large – scale, objective study of suprasegmental aspects of real speech is difficult to carry out, and much research remains to be done. (Ibid: 138)

What, then, is the practical value of traditional “rhythm exercise” for foreign learners? The argument about rhythm should not make us forget the very important difference in English between strong and weak syllables. Some languages don’t have such a noticeable difference (which may, perhaps, explain the subjective impression of “syllable-timing”), and for native speakers of such languages who are learning English it can be helpful to practice repeating strongly rhythmical utterances since this forces the speaker to concentrate on making unstressed syllables weak. Speakers of languages like Japanese, Hungarian and Spanish- which don’t have weak syllables to anything like the same extent as English does- may well find such exercises of some value (as long as they are not overdone to the point where learners feel they have to speak English as though they were reciting verse). (Ibid:134)

2-2 Assimilation:

The device mentioned earlier that produces “mechanical speech” would contain all the words of English, each having been recorded in isolation. A significant difference in natural connected speech is the way that sounds belonging to neighbouring words. Assuming that we know how the phonemes of a particular word would be realized when the word is pronounced in isolation, in cases where we find a phoneme realized differently as result of being near some other phoneme belonging to a neighbouring word we call this an instance of assimilation. Assimilation is something which varies in extent according to speaking rate and style: it is more likely to be found in rapid, casual speech and less likely in slow, careful speech. Sometimes the difference caused by assimilation is very noticeable, and sometimes it is very slight. Generally speaking, the cases that have most often been described are assimilations affecting consonants. As an example, consider a case where two words are combined, the first of which ends

with a single final consonant (which starts with a single initial consonant (which we will call C^i); we can



If C^f changes to become like C^i in some ways then the assimilation is called regressive (the phoneme that comes first is affected by the one that comes after it); if C^i changes to become like C^f in some way, then the assimilation is called progressive. In what way can a consonant change? We have seen that the main differences between consonants are of three types:

- i) Differences in place of articulation;
- ii) Differences in manner of articulation;
- iii) Differences in voicing.

In parallel with this, we can identify assimilation of place, of manner and of voicing in consonants. Assimilation of place is most clearly observable in some cases where a final consonant (C^f) with alveolar place of articulation is followed by an initial consonant (C^i) with a place of articulation that is not alveolar. For example, the final consonant in ‘that’ $\deltaæt$ is alveolar t . In rapid, casual speech t will become p before a bilabial consonant, as in: ‘that person’ $\deltaæp \text{ } p3:sn$ ‘light blue’ $laɪpblu:.$; ‘meat pie’ $mi:paɪ$. Before a dental consonant, t will change to dental plosive, for which the symbol is t , as in: ‘that thing’ $\deltaæt \thetaɪŋ$; ‘get those’ $get \delta\theta v z$, ‘cut through’ $kæt \theta ru:.$ Before a velar consonant, the t will become k , as in: ‘quite good’ $kwaɪt gʊd$. In similar contexts d would become b , d , and g , respectively, and n would become m , n and η . However, the same is not true of the other alveolar consonants: that s becomes \int and z becomes $ʒ$ when followed by \int or j ,

as in: ‘this is shoe’ $\partial I f \int u:$: ‘those years’ $\partial \partial v \zeta I \partial z$. it is important to note that the consonants that have undergone assimilation have not disappeared; in the above examples, the duration of the consonants remains more or less what one would expect for a two- consonant cluster. Assimilation of place is only noticeable in this regressive assimilation of alveolar consonants; it is not something that foreign learners need to learn to do.

Assimilation of manner is much less noticeable, and is only found in the most rapid and casual speech; generally speaking, the tendency is again for regressive assimilation and the change in manner is most likely to be towards an “easier” consonant- one which makes less obstruction to the airflow. It is thus possible to find cases where a final plosive becomes affricative or nasal at the end of a preceding word: it is very common to find that the C^i becomes identical in manner to the C^f but with dental place of articulation. For example (the arrow symbol means “becomes”)

‘in the’ $in \partial \partial \rightarrow in n \partial$

‘get them’ $get \partial \partial m \rightarrow get t \partial m$

‘read these’ $ri:d \partial i:z \rightarrow ri:d di:z$

It seems that the ∂ phoneme frequently occurs with no discernible friction noise.

Assimilation of voice is also found, but again only in a limited way. Only regressive assimilation of voice is found across word boundaries, and then only of one type; since this matter is important for foreign learners we will look at it in some detail. If C^f is a lenis (i.e. “voiced”) case of assimilation, since, as was explained in chapter 4, initial and final lenis consonants usually have little or no voicing anyway. When C^f is fortis (“voiceless”) and C^i lenis (“voiced”), a context in which in many languages C^f would become voice never

takes place; consider the following example: ‘I like that black dog’ *aɪlək ðætblækɒg* it is typical of many foreign learners of English that they allow regressive assimilation of voicing to change the final *k* of ‘like’ to *g*. The final *t* of ‘that’ to *d* and the final *k* of ‘black’ to *g*.

This creates a very strong impression of foreign accent, and is something that should obviously be avoided. Up to this point we have been looking at some fairly clear cases of assimilation across word boundaries. However, similar effects are also observable across morpheme boundaries and to some extent also within the morpheme. Sometimes in the latter case it seems that the assimilation is rather different from the word- boundary examples; for example, if in a syllable- final consonant cluster a nasal consonant precedes a plosive or affricate in the same morpheme, then the place of articulation of the other consonant; this: ‘bump’ *bʌmp* ; ‘tenth’ *tenθ* ‘hunt’ *hʌnt*, ‘bank’ *bæŋk*. It could be said that this assimilation has become fixed as part of the phonological structure of English syllables, since exceptions are almost non-existent. A similar example of a type of assimilation of voice with the suffixes *S* and *Z*; when a verb carries a third person singular- ‘s’ suffix, or a noun carries an- ‘s’ plural suffix or an ‘-s’ progressive suffix, that suffix will be pronounced as *s* if the preceding consonant is fortis (“voiceless”) and as *z* if the preceding consonant is lenis (“voiced”), thus:

‘cats’ <i>kæts</i>	‘dogs’ <i>dɒgz</i>
‘jumps’ <i>dʒʌmps</i>	‘runs’ <i>rʌnz</i>
‘pat’s’ <i>pæts</i>	‘pam’s’ <i>pæmz</i>

Much more could be said about assimilation but, from the point of view of learning or teaching English pronunciation, to do so would not be very useful. It is essentially a natural phenomenon that can be seen in any sort of complex physical activity, and the only important

matter is to remember the restriction, specific to English, on voicing assimilation mentioned above.

Assimilation creates something of a problem for phoneme theory; when, for example, *d* in ‘good’ *gʊd* becomes *g* in the context ‘...girl’ /*gʊg gɜ:l*/ or *b* in the context ‘....boy’ should we say that one phoneme has been substituted for another? If we do this, how do we describe the assimilation in ‘good thing’, or in ‘good food’ where *d* becomes dental *d(ed)* before the *θ* of ‘thing’, or in good food where *d* becomes a labiodentals plosive phoneme, so in these cases, although here is clearly assimilation, there could not be said to be a substitution of one phoneme for another. The alternative is to say that assimilation causes a phoneme to be realized by a different allophone; this would mean that, in the case of *gʊg gɜ:l* and *gʊb bɔɪ*, the phoneme *d* of ‘good’ has velar and bilabial allophones. Traditionally , phonemes were supposed not to overlap in their allophones, so that the only plosive that could allophones with bilabial place of articulation were *p* and *b*; this restriction is no longer looked on as so important. (Ibid:138)

2-3 Elision:

The nature of elision may be stated quite simply: under certain circumstances sounds disappear; one might express this in more technical language by saying that in certain circumstances a phoneme may be realized as zero, or have zero realization or be deleted. As with assimilation, elision is typical of rapid, casual speech. Producing elision is something which foreign learners don’t need to learn to do, but it is important for them to be aware that when native speakers of English talk to each other, quite number of phonemes that the foreigner might expect to hear are not actually pronounced.

We will look at some examples, although only a small number of the many possibilities can be given here.

i) Loss of weak vowel after *p, t, k*.

In words like ‘potato’, ‘tomato’, ‘canary’, ‘perhaps’, ‘today’, the vowel in the first syllable may disappear; the aspiration of the initial plosive takes up the whole of the middle portion of the syllable, resulting in these pronunciations (where *h* indicates aspiration).

P^h’/teɪtəʊ t^h’ma:təʊ k^h’neəri p^h’næps t^h’del

ii) Weak vowel + *n, l* or *r* becomes syllabic for example:

‘tonight’ *tnaɪt*, ‘police’ *plɔ:s*, ‘correct’ *krekt*.

iii) Avoidance of complex consonant cluster.

It has been said that no normal English speaker would ever pronounce all the consonants between the last two words of the following:

‘George the Sixth throne’ *dʒɔ:dʒðə sɪksθ θrəʊn*. Through this is not impossible to pronounce, some thing like *sɪks θrəʊn* is more likely. In clusters of three plosive or two plosive plus affricative, the middle plosive may disappear, so that the following pronunciations result:

‘acts’ *æks*, ‘looked back’ *lʊk bæk* ‘scripts’ *skrips*

iv) Loss of final *v* in ‘of’ before consonants; for example: ‘lots of them’ *lɒts ə ðəm* ‘waste of money’ *weɪst ə mʌni* it is difficult to know whether contractions of grammatical words should be regarded as examples of elision or not. The fact that they are regularly represented with special spelling forms makes them seem rather different from the above examples. The best known cases are:

‘had’, ‘would’: spelt *d*, pronounced *d* (after vowels), *əd* (after consonants);

‘is’, ‘has’ spelt *s*, pronounced *s* (after forties consonants), *z* (after lenis consonants), except that after *s, z, f, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ*.

‘is’ is pronounced *ɪz* and ‘has’ pronounced *əz* in contracted form; ‘will’ spelt *ll* pronounced *l* (after vowels), *l* (after consonants);

‘have’ : spelt ‘ve, pronounced *v* (after vowels) *əv* (after consonant);

‘not’: spelt ‘n’t, pronounced *nt* (after vowels), *nt* (after consonants).

(There are also vowel changes associated with n’t, e.g ‘can’ *kæn*, ‘can’t’ *ka:nt* ‘do’ *du:*, ‘don’t’ *dəʊnt*, ‘shall’ *ʃæl* ‘shan’t’ *ʃa:nt*);

‘are’ spelt ‘re, pronounced *ə* (after vowels, usually some change in the preceding vowel, e.g ‘you’ *ju:* ‘you are’ *jʊə* or *jɔ:*. ‘we’ *wi:*, ‘we are’ *wɪə*, ‘they’ *ðei* ‘they are’ *ðeə* linking *r* is used when a vowel follows, as explained in the next section. Contracted ‘are’ is also pronounced as *ə* or *ər* when following a consonant. (Ibid:142)

2- 4 Linking:

In our hypothetical “Mechanical Speech” all words would be separate units placed next to each other in sequence; in real connected speech, however, we sometimes link words together in special ways. The most familiar case is the use of linking *r*; the phoneme *r* does not occur in syllable- final position in BBC accent, but when a word’s spelling suggests a final *r*, and a word beginning with a vowel follows the usual pronunciation is to pronounce with *r*. for examples:

‘here’ *hɪə* but ‘here are’ *hɪərə*

‘four’ *fɔ:* but ‘four eggs’ *fɔ:regz*

BBC speakers often use *r* in a similar way to link words with a vowel even when there is no “justification” from the spelling, as in:

‘formula A’ *fɔ:mjələreɪ*

‘Australia all out’ *əstreɪliərɔ:ləʊt*

‘media event’ *mi:diərɪvent*

This has been called intrusive *r*; some English speakers and teachers still regard this as incorrect or sub-standard pronunciation, but it is undoubtedly wide spread.

“linking” and “intrusive *r*” are special case of juncture; this name refers to the relationship between one sound and the sounds that immediately precede and follow it, and it has been given some importance in phonological theory. If we take the two words ‘my turn’ *maɪtʃ:n* the relationship between *m* and *ai*, between *t* and *ʃ:* and between *ʃ:* and *n* is said to be one of close juncture. The sound *m* is preceded by silence and *n* is followed by silence, and so *m* and *n* are said to be in a position of external open juncture. The problem lies in deciding what the relationship is between *ɔl* and *t*; since we don’t usually pause between words, there is no silence (or external open juncture) to indicate word division and to justify the space left in the transcription. But if English speakers hear *maɪtʃ:n* they can usually recognize this as ‘my turn’ and not ‘might earn’. This is where the problem of internal open juncture (usually just called “juncture” for short) becomes apparent. What is it that makes perceptible the difference between *maɪtʃ:n* and *maɪtʃ:n* The answer is that in the one case the *t* is aspirated (initial in ‘turn’), and in the other case it is not (being final *m* ‘might’). The additional to this the *ai* diphthong is shorter in simpler argument. If a difference in meaning is caused by the difference between aspirated and unaspirated *t*, how can we avoid the conclusion that English has a phonemic contrast between aspirated and unaspirated *t*? The answer is, of course, that the

position of a word boundary has some effect on the realization of the *t* phoneme; this is one of many cases in which the occurrence of different allophones can only be properly explained by making reference to unit of grammar (some thing which was for a long time disapproved of by many phonologists). Many ingenious minimal pairs have been invented to show the significance of juncture, a few of which are given below:

- Might rain *maitrein* (*r* voiced when initial in ‘rain’, *aɪ* short), vs.
- ‘all that I’m after today’ *ɔ:l ðæt aɪm a:ftə tədeɪ* (*t* aspirated when initial in ‘time’)
- ‘he lies’ *hi: laɪz* (“clear I” initial in ‘lies’) ‘heal eyes’ *hi:laɪz* (“dark I” final in ‘heal’)
- ‘keep sticking’ *ki:p stɪkɪŋ* (*t* un aspirated after *s*) ‘keeps ticking’ *ki:psɪlɪkɪŋ* (*t* aspirated in ‘ticking’)

Of course, the context in which the words occur almost always makes it clear where the boundary comes and juncture information is then redundant. It should by now be clear that there is a great deal of difference between the way words are pronounced in isolation and in the context of connected speech. It would not be practical or useful to teach all learners of English to produce assimilations; practice in making elisions related to rhythm and linking. Perhaps the most important consequence of what has been described in this chapter is that learners of English must be made very clearly aware of the problems that they will meet in listening to colloquial, connected speech. (Ibid:144)

2.5 WHAT IS CONNECTED SPEECH?

Connected speech, is also known as reduced forms, is the continuous chains in normal conversation, which include such

phenomena as reduction, elision, assimilation, intrusion, juncture, linking and contraction (Brown, 2006). It is combinatory articulatory phenomenon in which words are not pronounced in isolation but run together (Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin, 2007). In connected speech, L2 learners of English often find some words missing where they expect to hear and they try their best, often in vain, to figure out where the word boundaries are in a stream of sounds. What is most frustrating for them, especially for those with a good knowledge of English grammar and sufficient amount of vocabulary, is their inability to decipher native speech. The problem of course, ; is that in an English environment, languages teachers speak clearly and teach English with listening materials that are full of clearly pronounced and articulated speech (Rogerson, 2006). Then when the students encounter the oral language in English language movies, lectures and conversations, they suddenly run into much more varied representations of the sounds they learned. Students need to be aware of the differences between citation forms (i.e. clear pronunciation of a word when it is stressed or pronounced in isolation out of context) and modification in connected speech (i.e. contracted, elided, reduced, assimilated, or linked pronunciation that occur between syllables or words) so that they know what to expect when listening to fluent, native speaker English. Without knowing differences, they may have a serious misunderstanding in communication.

In linguistics, connected speech, is a continuous sequence of sounds forming utterances or conversations in spoken languages. Analysis of connected speech shows sounds changes affecting linguistics units traditionally described as phrases, words, lexemes, morphemes, syllables, phonemes or phones (Crystal-Blackwell, 2003).

Weinstein defines reduced forms as:

The pronunciation changes that occur in natural speech because of the environment or context in which a word or sound is found. The amount

of reduction (the level) depends on how fast the word or sound is spoken. (2001 ,p.vii)

Rogerson, (2006) summarizes that reduced forms are a common element of spoken English, found in all registers and all rates of speech. While register and rate may contribute to some rules of appropriateness or production in general, reduced forms affect all areas and types of spoken English.

2.6 ASSIMILATION

Assimilation is a common connected speech process wherein one phoneme is changed into another due to the influence of a nearby phoneme. It describes how sounds modify each other when they meet, usually across word boundaries, and within words too. It can go in both directions, forward and backward, and it can be either the in place of articulation or voice that is assimilated. There are three types of assimilation in English:

- Progressive assimilation

In progressive (or perseverative) assimilation, a sound assimilates to the preceding sound. So the feature in which the sound becomes more similar is transmitted forward from one sound to the next. In English, progressive assimilation can be found for the inflectional suffixes (-ed) and plural (-s), in which the final sound of the stem conditions the voiced or voiceless form of the suffix. For the plural (-s) endings, the voiced /g/ of bags, for example, conditions the voiced form of the (-s) ending, causing it to be pronounced /z/, whereas, the voiceless /k/ of back conditions the /s/ pronunciation of the ending. The same type of conditioning occurs in the (-ed) endings, whereas, the voiced /v/ of moved, for example, conditions the (d) pronunciation of the past-tense ending, and the voiceless /f/ of fished conditions the past-tense ending (t).

Regressive assimilation

Regressive assimilation is more pervasive as a purely phonological process than in progressive assimilation. In regressive assimilation, the direction of the assimilation is opposite: a sound assimilates to the one following it. While for progressive assimilation the speech organs remain in place too long, for regressive assimilation, their movement comes too early, so that which should only occur later in the word can already be heard in an earlier sound. Because of this, regressive assimilation is sometimes also called anticipatory assimilation.

Regressive assimilation occurs commonly in *used to* and *has/have to* (when expressing obligation). Examples:

a- I used to play cricket. /ai ju.stə.. .. /

I used two. /ai ju:zɪ tu:/ (main verb)

b- I have to write her a letter. /ai hæftə...../

I have two. /ai hæv tu:/ (main verb possess)

have to → *hafta

has to → *hasta

used to → *useta

supposed to → *supposta

- Celce-Murcia (2007: 160)

In these examples the voiceless /t/ of *to* is the conditioning sound that causes the voiced /v/, /z/ and /d/ preceding it to assimilate and become voiceless /f/, /s/ and /t/.

Also, forms where one phoneme replaces another mainly affect alveolar sounds /t, d, n, s, z / when they are final in the word before bilabial sounds /p, b, m / or velar sounds /k, g/ in this way:

- The phonemes /t/, /d/ and /n/ often become bilabial before bilabial consonants /p/, /b/ and /m/:

a- He's a rather fat boy.

(/t/ assimilates to /p/)

b- She's got an apartment in Manhattan.

(/t/ also, assimilates to /p/)

c- He's a mad man.

(/d/ assimilates to /b/)

d- There are ten men in the class.

(/n/ assimilates to /m/)

- *It!* assimilates to /k/ before /k/ or /g/ and /d/ assimilates to /g/ before /k/ or /g/:

a- Can you see that girl over there?

(/t/ assimilates to /k/)

b- I need many kid-gloves.

(/d/ assimilates to /g/)

- /n/ can assimilate to /ŋ/ before /g/ or /k/:

a- I've been going out too much lately.

b- He's bringing his own car.

- /s/ can assimilate to /ʃ/ before /ʃ/:

- I really love this shiny one over here.

- /z/ can assimilate to /ʒ/ before /ʃ/:

- We found this lovely little cheese shop in Paris.

- Kelly (2008: 110)

- **Coalescence assimilation**

It's a special case of assimilation. The direction of assimilation is neither progressive nor regressive, but the neighboring sounds in the citation forms are mutually influenced. The assimilation is reciprocal, two sounds combine to form a different one (palatalization) :

- /t/ and /y/ coalesce to form /tʃ/;

a- You went to France last year, didn't you? (Kelly 2008:111)

b- Is that your dog? (Celce-Murcia 2010:162)

- /d/ and /y/ coalesce to form /dʒ/ ;

a- Would you like a cup of tea?

b- procedure

- (Examples cited from Celce-Murcia 2010:162)

Assimilations of this sort are especially common in tag-questions with you:

a- You didn't do the washing, did you? /dɪdʒu/

b- You should contact the police, shouldn't you? /ʃʊdn̩tʃu/

In these examples, both the place and manner of articulation change. The place of articulation is alveolar for /t/ and /d/ and palatal for /y/. For the outcome of the assimilation /tʃ/ or /dʒ/, the place of articulation is post-alveolar, which is in-between alveolar and palatal. The same could be said for the manner of articulation: while /t/ and /d/ as plosives are sounds of complete obstruction and /y/ as an approximant has much more opening, the affricates /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ are something in the middle ground.

When alveolar fricatives /s/ or /z/ are followed by /y/, coalescence also occurs that result in post-alveolar fricatives /ʃ/ and /ʒ/, for example;

/s/ → /ʃ/: this year → /ðɪʃiəl/

/z/ → /ʒ/: has your ? → /həʒɔ:/

Moreover, initial /ð/ in unstressed words may be assimilated following /n, l, s, z/:

On the shelves /ɒn nə ʃelvz/

What's the matter? /wɒts sə mətə/

All the time /ɔ:l ðə taɪm/

How is the patient? /haʊz zə peɪfnt/

- (Examples cited from Celce-Murcia 2010:163)

According to Celce - Murcia et al ,(2007) the amount of assimilation that occurs in native-speaker speech will depend on a number of variables, such as the formality of the situation, the rate of speech, and the style of the speaker.

2.7 ELISION

An even more radical pervasive form of adjustment in connected speech is elision (also known as deletion or omission). In this process, sounds disappear or are not clearly articulated in certain contexts, and sometimes even whole syllables may be elided. As assimilation, the reason is an economy of effort, and in some instances the difficulty of putting certain consonant sounds together while maintaining regular speech rhythm and speed. According to Frank Lorenz (2012) even many native speakers may be unaware of where deletion occurs. It mostly affects the English sounds /h/, /t/, /d/, and schwa. The following are the most typical environments for deletion in English:

- Loss of /t/ or /d/ is common if they are central of a sequence of three consonants;

a-We arrived the nextt day.

(/t/ elided between /ks/ and /d/)

b-When we reached Paris, we stopped for lunch.

(/t/ elided between /tʃ/ and /p/, and between /p/ and /f/)

b- She bought a lovely carved statuette.

(/d/ elide between /v/ and /st/)

- (Examples cited from Kelly 2008: 116)

Elision such as these may remove the /t,d/ marker of past tense in verbs but the tense is usually (not always) clear through context. Elision of /t, d/ is not heard before /h/:

A packed house /ə pækt haʊs/. Beverly Collins (2003:211)

Sequences of consonant + /t+y/ and consonant + /d+y/ generally retain /t/ and /d/, but often have reciprocal assimilation to /tʃ/ and /dʒ/:

a- I've booked your flight. /aiv buktʃɔ:flait/

b- Have you sold your house. /hæv ju: səʊldʒ ɔ: haʊs/.
- (Examples cited from Beverly Collins 2003 :211)

- The verb forms wouldn't you, didn't you, etc. are regularly heard with this assimilated form: /wʊdntʃu, didntʃu/,

- The sequence /skt/ has elision of /k/, instead of, or if preceding consonants, in addition to /t/:

a- Masked gunman /ma:st ɡʌnmən/ or /ma:s ɡʌnmən/,

b- I asked Henry. /aɪ a:st henri/.

- Beverly Collins (2003 :212)

- Forms of numerals, e.g., fifth, twelfth, do not elide /θ/ but may instead elide the preceding consonant: /fɪθ/ , /twelθ/.

- Two common words have frequent alternative forms with elision of dental fricatives /θ, ð/ :

Month /mʌns/, clothes /kləʊz/

• Loss of unstressed medial vowel /ə/ or /i/ following strongly stressed syllable in certain multisyllabic words. For instance:

Choc<ə>late

Cam<ə>ra

Veg<ə>table

-(Celce-Murcia 2010: 172)

- Also, in rapid or informal native-speaker speech, deletion occasionally occurs in two-syllable words, such as the following which are reduced to one syllable in which /ə/ can disappear:

a- I think we should call the police.

b- b-Are you coming out tonight?

c- c-I'll love you forever.

- (Kelly 2008: 117)

Related to this type of deletion is the loss of unstressed initial vowel or syllable in highly informal speech, a process known as aphaesis:

Because → *'cause

about → *'bout

come on → *c'mon

- Celce-Murcia (2010: 164)

- Loss of final /v/ in of (and reduction to schwa) before words with initial consonants:

a - It's a complete waste ofotime.

b -They spend lot ofomoney.

- (Ibid: 172)

In more rapid speech, /v/ is sometimes elided before /m/ in the verbs give, have, leave:

a- Give me a chance.

/'gɪmiə 'tʃɑ:ns/

b- Do you have my number?

/du:ju 'hæ mai 'nʌbo/

c-Leave me alone.

/'li: mi ə 'ləʊn/

- (Ibid: 162-163)

- Deletion of initial /h/ from the weak forms of function words is to be heard even in formal speech registers in all varieties of English
Beverley & Inger (2003),e.g.,

I think he will have told her.

/ai 'θɪŋk i wil əv 'təʊld ə/

- Deletion of words in questions is a very informal. Speakers can delete the first one or two words of these questions. Examples:

a- Do you want some popcorn?

*Ya want some popcorn? OR

Want some popcorn?

b- Have you seen any good movies?

*Ya seen any good movies? OR

Seen any good movies?

- Weinstein (2001:94)

- Loss of the first non-initial /r/ in a word that has another /r/ in a following syllable (also known as disappearing /r/):

Feb<r>uary

Su<r>prise

Tempe<r>ature

- Celce-Murcia (2010:164)

2.8 LINKING AND INTRUSION

This process can be viewed as the opposite of elision because it involves inserting phonemes within or between words rather than dropping them. The ability to speak English smoothly, to utter words or syllables that are appropriately connected, entails the use of linking, which is the connecting of the final sound of one word or syllable to the initial sound of the next. The amount of linking that occurs in native- speaker speech will depend on a number of factors, such as the informality of the situation, and the rate of speaking. Thus, the amount of linking is not predictable. However, according to the sounds that meet at word boundaries (i.e. consonants and vowels) linking occurs with regularity in the following environments:

- Consonant-to-vowel linking (c-v) takes place when the final consonant of a word or syllable is followed by a word or syllable beginning with a vowel, the consonant is often produced intervocalically, as if it belongs to both syllables:

Keep out → kee~p~out

Dream on → drea~m~on (Ibid: 166)

- When a word or a syllable terminating in a consonant cluster is followed by a word or syllable commencing with a vowel, the final consonant of the cluster is often pronounced as part of the following syllable. Linking in this case helps to break up and simplify the cluster and is sometimes referred to as resyllabification:

Left arm → *lef.tarm

Wept over → *wep.tover

Find out → *fin.dout

- (Celc-Murcia2007:159)

- When two identical consonants come together as a result of juxtaposition of two words, there is one single, elongated articulation of the consonant:

Stop pushing [p:]

Less serious [s:]

Short time [t:]

Big gab [g:]

- Celce-Murcia (2007:159 & 2010:167)

- Vowel-to vowel linking occurs when a word that in a high and mid tense vowel is followed by a word that begins with a vowel. Speakers, thereafter, insert a very short /w/ or /y/ sound to link the two vowels together and avoid a gap between the sounds. The choice of linking glide depends on the vowel at the end of the first word .If the first word ends with a high front vowel, such as /i:/ or a diphthong which finishes with /i/, then the linking sound will be /y/ as in:

be^yable , stay^yup , try^yout

- (Celce-Murcia 2010:165)

However, if the word ends with a high back vowel, such as /u/, speakers often introduces a /w/ to ease the transition to a following

vowel sound as in:

Do it → Do^wit

blue ink → blue^wYink

Who is /hu:wiz/

You are /ju:wa:/

- Examples cited from (Ibid:166)

Insertion of a /y/ and /w/ glides exist not only between words, but word- Internally too. Examples:

create → cre^yate

going → go^wing

- (Ibid:166)

- **Linking /r/**

Some accents of English are described as rhotic, which means that when the letter r appears in the written word after a vowel (as in car or carve), the r phoneme is used in the pronunciation of the word (/ka:r/ and /ka:rv/). Examples are most dialects of American English, Irish English and certain British regional accents (Kelly, 2008). Other accents are non-rhotic, and do not pronounce the /r/, so they pronounce /ka:/ and /ka:v/. RP (received pronunciation) is non-rhotic. When, however, there is a written r at the end of a word and it occurs between two vowel sounds, speakers with non-rhotic accents often use the phoneme /r/ to link the preceding vowel to a following one. Examples:

a- My brotherlives in London.

/r/ is not pronounced

b- My brother always phones at the wrong time.

/r/ is pronounced

- Intrusive /r/

Where two vowel sounds meet and there is no written letter r, speakers with non-rhotic accents will still often introduce the /r/ phoneme in order to ease the transition. This happens when the first word ends in /ə/, /a:/ or /ɔ:/. Speakers with rhotic accents tend not to do this.

Examples:

a- Prince Diana was a victim of media (r)exploitation.

b- It's a question of law(r) and order.

c- The sofa(r) in the catalogue.

- Kelly (2008: 118)

Intrusive r is often considered by English people as 'lazy' or 'uneducated' speech. Nevertheless, as Beverley & Inger (2003) mention, it is the characteristic feature of NRP, and is also heard from the overwhelming majority of those who use any non-rhotic variety of English.

A related phenomena is epenthesis, where an additional phoneme is heard in the pronunciation of a word, which should not occur according to its spelling. In English, according to Frank Lorenz (2012), plosives are often inserted after nasals. Examples are words like (chance), (triumph) or (amongst), many speakers will pronounce them /tʃɑ:nts/, /'traɪəph/ and /'traɪəmpf/, which is equally correct.

2.9 TRANSITION (JUNCTURE)

Transition refers to the ways that neighboring phonemes are connected. Close transition refers to those pronunciations wherein there is close connection between successive sounds, whereas open transition refers to pronunciations where there is a slight break in the continuity of the pronunciation. Brown & Kondo-Brown (2006) give as an example the two pronunciations nitrate and night rate. The connection between /t/ and /r/ is different in the two, the former demonstrates a close transition and the latter an open transition. Some analysts use instead the term juncture for both open and close forms. Brown & Kondo-Brown (2006)

2.10 REDUCTION

English is typically considered a stressed-time language, implying a regular rhythm of stressed and unstressed syllables (Rogerson, 2006). While many languages are based on syllable timing, in which each syllable receives about the same amount of stress, in English, it is primarily "content" words that receive stress while "structure" or "function" words remain unstressed. Function words serve primarily a grammatical function and include articles, auxiliaries, prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, and relative pronouns. Reduced forms are produced when these unstressed function words are blended, contracted, linked, assimilated, or reduced to combine with other function words as well as content words of a sentence. The primary way sounds in function words are reduced is through the reduction of vowel sounds from their "strong" form to their "weak" form which replaces a long vowel sound with a schwa vowel sound. Auxiliary verbs are often contracted, especially the /h/ found in many pronouns. Existence of strong and weak forms, although limited to a few dozen

words, is very significant since these are some of the most basic words of the language, with a very high frequency of use. As will be obvious from (Appendix D), some of these function words have more than one weak form, and while some of these variations are predictable, e.g., /ðə/ before consonants as in the book, and /ði/ before vowels as in the apple, many others are far from being invariable. Besides, while reduced forms [ən] and [kən] are the expected forms in normal running speech, they will be uttered in their full form, [ænd] and [kæn] respectively, when they become the focus of the exchange, e.g. ,

A: "I can't finish this job by Tuesday".

B: "Yes, you can".

There are some restrictions, however, some words occur in their strong forms when they are in sentence-final position (Appendix D), and it is usual to say You're not, You aren't, and I'm not, but I amn't is unusual and seen as incorrect.

In fact, function words can cause problems for non-native listener since in their most highly reduced form, the representations for many common function words are virtually identical, for example;

him, them → [ɪm]

as, is → [əs]

a, of, have → [ə]

or, are → [ər]

in, on, an, and → [ən] , [n]

They should be pointed out so that the students get some practice at recognizing them in their reduced forms.

Also, the sequence /tt/ is normally reduced to /t/ in three common verbal forms: ought to, want to, got to. Examples:

- I want to leave. /ai 'wɒntə 'li:v/

some speakers will further reduce this to:

/ai 'wɒnə 'li:v/.

- They've got to go now.

/ðeiv 'gɒtə 'gəʊnaʊ/

-We ought to visit him.

/wi:ɔ:tə 'vɪzɪt ɪm/

Moreover, Charles W. Kreidler (2005) notes that not all function words undergo these phonological processes. The prepositions by, down, in, off, out, on, through, and up do not have reduced forms, nor do two-syllable prepositions like about and beside. Also, auxiliary verbs with free vowel, like may, might, and ought, do not reduce, nor do the pronouns she, we, me, and they.

2.11 Previous Studies:

- i. In reviewing the literature on connected speech, the researcher tried as far as possible searching, the researcher has just found only one study relevant to the subject prepared by Ekram Hassaballa- University of Nile Valley about “Integrating Aspects of Connected Speech into Text Book for Sudanese Secondary Students”. The study is very similar and closed to this study, the main difference is just that Ekram’s study aimed to investigate students of secondary level meanwhile this study is prepared to investigate the problems and difficulties that face the non-native speakers learners and the speakers in general when they use the language to communicate with native speakers in different contexts.
- ii. Another study published online under the title Aspects of Connected Speech in English Assessing Students’ Progress after Pronunciation Training Master Diploma Thesis by Bc. Petra Erbanova. This study was prepared in the field of ELT to test the ability of secondary schools students in dealing with connected speech after pronunciation training so the differences is in the purpose of each one the previous study for the purpose of ELT and this study prepared to investigate the difficulties that non-native speakers face by the reason of aspects of connected speech.

Chapter Three

Methodology

3-1: Introduction:

In this chapter the researcher is going to discuss the research methodology of this study, the instrument which is used to collect the data of the study and the procedures of data collections.

3-2: The Subject:

The samples of this study were collected randomly from the holders of English language degrees; such as bachelor and master, who have a background about the subject of the study. The researcher selected those as samples, because they are active in the field of language and they have experience that will enable them to deal with the subject, furthermore the researcher presented brief introduction accompanied the tool of data collection in order to clear any doubt or confusion about the subject of the study in order to get reliable and valid data.

3-3: The tools:

The researcher used the questionnaire as a tool to collect data. The questionnaire consists of twelve statements distributed to forty participants who have different degrees in English language.

The participants were given a choice such as: strongly agree- agree- neutral – strongly disagree – disagree, to answer the statements.

3-4: Validity and Reliability:

In order to make sure of the validity and reliability, the researcher preferred the questionnaire to other tools that involve specific methods, the researcher found those other tools very difficult to be used in order

to collect reliable data, therefore using questionnaire was the best tool to serve the purpose of data collecting.

3-5: Summary:

In summarizing this chapter; the researcher used the descriptive method to describe the changes that happened in connected speech and the constituents that affect in forming connected speech and using questionnaire for collecting data and testing validity and reliability of data.

Chapter Four

Data Analysis, Results and Discussion

4-1: Introduction:

In this chapter the researcher displays the analysis of data that obtained and the results of data.

The data was analyzed by using statistical package for social sciences program (SPSS).

4-2: Results:

Table (4.1) distribution of Q 1 according to the questionnaire

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	24	60%
Agree	15	37.5%
Neutral	0	0%
Strongly disagree	0	0%
Disagree	1	2.5%
Total	40	100%

Table (4.1) illustrates 97.5% of the samples agree that the majority of non-native speakers have weak background about connected speech.

Table (4.2) distribution of Q 2 according to the questionnaire

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	14	35%
Agree	23	57.5%
Neutral	2	5%
Strongly disagree	0	0%
Disagree	1	2.5%
Total	40	100%

Table (4.2) illustrates 92.5% of the samples agree that most of non-native speakers lack enough consciousness to the changes that happen during the course of speech.

Table (4.3) distribution of Q 3 according to the questionnaire

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	15	37.5%
Agree	20	50%
Neutral	5	12.5%
Strongly disagree	0	0%
Disagree	0	0%
Total	40	100%

Table (4.3) illustrates 87.5% of the samples agree that the non-native speakers are unable to speak connectively as well as native speakers because they ignore the constituents which form connected speech.

Table (4.4) distribution of Q 4 according to the questionnaire

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	18	45%
Agree	12	30%
Neutral	8	20%
Strongly disagree	0	0%
Disagree	2	5%
Total	40	100%

Table (4.4) illustrates 75% of the samples agree that the majority of weakness of knowledge of the basic sounds and phonological patterns affect negatively in understanding spoken discourse.

Table (4.5) distribution of Q 5 according to the questionnaire

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	14	35%
Agree	13	32.5%
Neutral	4	10%
Strongly disagree	5	12.5%
Disagree	4	10%
Total	40	100%

Table (4.5) illustrates 67.5% of the samples agree that some phonological constituents such as rhythm, elision and liking have great role in forming connected speech.

Table (4.6) distribution of Q 6 according to the questionnaire

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	18	45%
Agree	18	45%
Neutral	4	10%
Strongly disagree	0	0%
Disagree	0	0%
Total	40	100%

Table (4.6) illustrates 90% of the samples agree that great numbers of non-native speakers unable to use rhythm, linking and elision to form connected speech.

Table (4.7) distribution of Q 7 according to the questionnaire

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	21	52.5%
Agree	13	32.5%
Neutral	2	5%
Strongly disagree	1	2.5%
Disagree	3	7.5%
Total	40	100%

Table (4.7) illustrates 85% of the samples agree that the majority of non-native speakers neglect the using of rhythm, linking and elision during the course of speech.

Table (4.8) distribution of Q 8 according to the questionnaire

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	20	50%
Agree	11	27.5%
Neutral	7	17.5%
Strongly disagree	1	2.5%
Disagree	1	2.5%
Total	40	100%

Table (4.8) illustrates 77.5% of the samples agree that the non-native speakers need to be careful to the constituents that form connected speech during the course of speech.

Table (4.9) distribution of Q 9 according to the questionnaire

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	26	65%
Agree	10	25%
Neutral	3	7.5%
Strongly disagree	0	0%
Disagree	1	2.5%
Total	40	100%

Table (4.9) illustrates 90% of the samples agree that the non-native speakers should master the basic units of sounds to understand the bigger and more complicated units of phonology.

Table (4.10) distribution of Q 10 according to the questionnaire

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	17	42.5%
Agree	14	35%
Neutral	3	7.5%
Strongly disagree	3	7.5%
Disagree	3	7.5%
Total	40	100%

Table (4.10) illustrates 77.5% of the samples agree that comprehensive knowledge of phonological constituents help in understanding the nature of connected speech.

Table (4.11) distribution of Q 11 according to the questionnaire

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	15	37.5%
Agree	15	37.5%
Neutral	7	17.5%
Strongly disagree	2	5%
Disagree	1	2.5%
Total	40	100%

Table (4.11) illustrates 75% of the samples agree that the listening to tape recorder or other media devices unuseful unless the non-native speakers master the main factors that form connected speech

Table (4.12) distribution of Q 12 according to the questionnaire

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	12	30%
Agree	11	27.5%
Neutral	5	12.5%
Strongly disagree	7	17.5%
Disagree	5	12.5%
Total	40	100%

Table (4.12) illustrates 57.5% of the samples agree that intensive exercises and drills help non-native speakers to improve their knowledge and performance of connected speech.

4-3: Summary:

In summarizing this chapter, and according to data collection, the study showed that most non-native speakers who answered the questionnaire have a problem about connected speech. Furthermore, neglecting the proper knowledge of basic sounds and neglecting practice and drills affect negatively in the performance of non-native speakers in English Spoken discourse when the matter concerns taking part in communicating with native speakers.

Chapter Five

Conclusions, Recommendations and Further Suggestions

5-1 Introduction:

In this chapter the researcher presents and displays the finding results of the previous chapters and the necessary procedures that should be taken for better knowledge and acceptable performance.

5-2 Conclusion:

In concluding this chapter the researcher got the following results according to the data collection:

- The connected speech has great importance in interacting with the native speakers.
- The majority of non-native speakers lack the proper knowledge, because of poor knowledge during their study in the university.
- Great numbers of non-native speakers neglect taking part in any sort of activities or exercise to improve and support the knowledge and practice.

5-3 Findings

- The results showed that a lot of non-native speakers are not conscious enough to the factors which form the connected speech and their role in the changes which happen during the speech.
- Some of non-native speakers know about the factors which are responsible for changing the sounds in connected speech.
- Exercises and drills through the media and other recorded tapes provided the non-native speakers with necessary knowledge and help them in finding out the difficulties they face, besides helping them to improve their knowledge and performance.

5-4 Further Suggestions:

The researcher sees that exposing the learners in an early age to the field of phonetics and phonology will help them in better understanding of English language in their future by reviewing the syllables and curricula and improving English syllables. It is very necessary to introduce some courses about the field of phonetics to provide the student with enough background to help them in the future.

5-5 Recommendations:

On the basis of results and general observation during the preparation of this study and the personal experience the researcher recommends with following:

- The courses of phonetics and phonology are so important in understanding the nature of spoken discourse especially the basic units of sounds and other patterns of phonology.
- Presenting and introducing intensive programmes in studying this field of language, in addition to different methods in testing and examining the students.
- The necessity and importance of language laboratories in educational institutions especially universities.
- The learners of English language should expose themselves to intensive and continuous practice and exercises of listening and investigating the field of phonology deeply to understand the nature of this field by having continuous activities that will enable them to get satisfactory out puts for better performance.

References

- Brown J.D & K. Kondo-Brown (2006), Perspective on Teaching Connected Speech to Second Language speakers. Honolulu University of Hawai'i press.
- Bc. Petra Erbanova, 2014, Aspects of connected speech in English Assessing Students' progress after pronunciation training, Masaryk University, Master diploma thesis, Czech Republic.
- Celce-Murcia, M., Brinton, D., & Goodwin, J., (2010). Teaching Pronunciation, a course book and reference guide, 2nd ed., New York, Cambridge University Press.
- Celce-Murcia, M., Brinton, D.M., & Goodwin, J.M. (2007). Teaching Pronunciation, a reference for teachers of English to Speakers of other languages 15th ed., New York, Cambridge University Press.
- Collins, B., & Inger M. Mees (2003). The Phonetics of English and Dutch 5th ed. Boston, Brill Leiden.
- Crystal, D. (2003). A dictionary of Linguistics and Phonatics 5th ed. Cambridge, MA, Blackwell.
- Ekram Hasaballa, (2013) Investigating connected speech into text book for Sudanese Secondary Students, Nile Valley University, MA Research, Sudan.
- Kelly, Gerald (2008). How to teach Pronunciation 11th impression, London and New York, Longman.
- Peter Roach, English phonetics and phonology.
- Weinstein, N. (2001). Whaddaya say? Guided Practice in Relaxed Speech 2nd ed. London and New York, Longman.

Appendices

University of Sudan for Science and Technology

Faculty of Graduate Studies

Questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to get data about Connected Speech for fulfilling research of M.A degree.

Connected Speech is the continuous chain in normal conversation, which includes such criteria as Elision, Assimilation and Linking, Intrusion and Juncture. It is combinatory articulatory phenomenon in which words are not pronounced in isolation but run together.

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Strongly Disagree	Disagree
1/ The majority of non-native speakers have weak background about connected speech.					
2/ Most of non-native speakers lack enough consciousness to the changes that happen during the course of speech.					
3/ The non-native speakers are unable to speak connectively as well as native speakers because they ignore the constituents which form connected speech.					
4/ Weakness of knowledge of the basic sounds and phonological patterns affect negatively in understanding spoken discourse.					
5/ Some phonological constituents such as rhythm, elision and linking have great role in forming connected speech.					
6/ Great numbers of non-native speakers are unable to use rhythm, linking and elision to form connected speech.					

7/ The majority of non-native speakers neglect the using of rhythm, linking and elision during the course of speech.					
8/ The non-native speakers need to be careful about the constituents that form connected speech during the course of speech.					
9/ The non-native speakers should master the basic units of sounds to understand the bigger and more complicated units of phonology.					
10/ comprehensive knowledge of phonological constituents help in understanding the nature of connected speech.					
11/ Listening to a tape recorder or other media devices are unuseful unless the non-native speakers master the main factors that form connected speech.					
12/ Intensive exercises and drills help non-native speakers to improve their knowledge and performance of connected speech.					

Thank you.

The researcher